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Cyclic thermomechanical response of fine-grained soil-concrete interface for energy piles applications

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Abstract

15

Understanding the behaviour of soil-structure interfaces is critical for addressing

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the analysis and design of energy geostructures. In this study, the interface failure

17

mechanism of energy piles (where a shear band is detached from the surrounding

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soil that behaves under oedometric conditions) is experimentally analysed in

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laboratory for saturated conditions. The choice of material (clayey soil and

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concrete), temperature range, and stress level is based on conditions that are likely

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to be encountered in practice. Specifically, cyclic thermal tests under constant

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vertical effective stress in oedometric conditions as well as constant normal

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stiffness (CNS) interface direct shear tests (in which samples have been subjected

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to thermal cycles between 10 and 40 °C) are presented. From a practical

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perspective, the results show very low volumetric strain variations and negligible

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effects on shear strength. The volumetric aspects do not appear to have significant

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impact on the shear resistance of the interfaces against cyclic thermal loads.

28

Fundamental insight on the effects of thermal cycles on the concrete-soil interface

29

behaviour which are relevant to energy piles are presented. In addition, the

30 proposed interpretation procedure provides a basis for the standardisation of
31 thermomechanical testing in geotechnical engineering.

32 **Keywords:** energy piles, soil-concrete interface, thermomechanical behaviour,
33 laboratory testing, cyclic load.

34 **1. Introduction**

35 In geotechnical engineering, the study of non-isothermal soil behaviour dates
36 back to the 1950s and 1960s. During that time, the focus was on understanding the
37 effects of temperature on engineering properties, generating thermal pressurisation
38 for saturated soils, and soil sampling. From the 1970s to the 1990s, several new
39 geotechnical applications that required understanding of the behaviour of soils
40 subjected to temperature changes (e.g., design in permafrost regions, nuclear
41 waste storage, buried high voltage electrical cables) were introduced. Most of the
42 available research and literature that started in those years and developed until
43 more recent times focuses mainly on the design of repositories for radioactive
44 waste disposal in deep geological media and the consequent development of
45 advanced thermo-hydro-mechanical constitutive models to provide long-term
46 nuclear waste management solutions (e.g., Laloui et al. 2008). Starting from the
47 2000s, there has been an interest in environmentally friendly technologies capable
48 of addressing climate change challenges, such as energy geostructures and other
49 thermoactive ground structures (McCartney et al. 2019; Laloui and Rotta Loria
50 2019). Understanding the behaviour of soil-structure interfaces is critical to
51 address the analysis and design of energy geostructures, e.g., the analysis of

52 energy pile capacity subjected to cyclic thermal loads. As a result of their
53 multifunctional roles, energy piles are exposed to daily and seasonal temperature
54 variations during their lifetime. Therefore, possible effects of cyclic thermal load
55 need to be investigated, e.g., thermal effects resulting in volumetric response of soil
56 at the pile–soil interface at different temperatures, as well as mechanical effects
57 (i.e., displacements at the interface) resulting from cyclic axial dilation and
58 contraction of the concrete during heating and cooling. Both may affect the normal
59 stress at the soil-pile interface which may lead to changes in the soil-pile shear
60 resistance.

61 The analysis presented in this paper reproduces the interface failure mechanism
62 of energy piles in the laboratory for saturated conditions. A schematic
63 representation of the failure mechanism of the pile-soil interface which consists of
64 large localised strains concentrated in a thin layer around the pile, i.e., the
65 interface, is shown in Figure 1. Figure 1 also illustrates the modelling approach
66 adopted in the laboratory to reproduce the failure mechanism where a shear band
67 is detached from the surrounding soil that behaves under oedometric conditions.
68 The presence of the surrounding soil is replicated by a spring stiffness which
69 accounts for the effects of the volume changes (i.e., normal stress variations).
70 Therefore, the basic aspects that constitute the failure mechanism, i.e. the
71 volumetric response of the soil, under oedometric conditions, and the shear
72 response of the soil-concrete interface to cyclic thermal loads need to be
73 addressed individually and combined to fully describe and better understand the
74 failure mechanism at the pile-soil interface.

75 For this purpose, a critical overview of the current framework adopted for
76 analysing phenomena related to the thermovolumetric behaviour of fine-grained
77 soils and the thermomechanical behaviour of interfaces is first presented in the
78 respective introductory sections. The study then focuses on the response of fine-
79 grained soils and soil-concrete interfaces for energy piles applications where
80 drained conditions are assumed upon thermal loading (Mimouni and Laloui 2015;
81 Sutman 2016; Rotta Loria and Laloui 2017a) and temperature values are between
82 2 and 45 °C (Laloui and Rotta Loria 2019). The experimental programme aims to
83 investigate the thermomechanical effects on the response of fine-grained soils and
84 soil-concrete interfaces subjected to cyclic thermal loads. The choice of material,
85 range of temperature, and applied stresses is based on the conditions that are
86 likely to be encountered in practice. Specifically, cyclic thermal tests under
87 constant vertical effective stress in oedometric conditions with temperatures
88 ranging between 10 and 40 °C have been conducted to study the volumetric
89 response of fine-grained soils. The focus on this type of material is based on their
90 historically observed higher sensitivity to temperature variations compared to
91 coarse-grained soils. The purpose is to discuss the influence of cyclic thermal
92 loads on the material under consideration. In interface analysis, changes in
93 volumetric response mean changes in boundary conditions. Moreover, constant
94 normal stiffness (CNS) direct shear tests, in which the soil-concrete interface has
95 been subjected to thermal cycles, are presented. The constant normal stiffness
96 condition has been adopted to account for the effects of the volume changes that
97 occur when the soil adjacent to the pile is sheared (Tabucanon et al. 1995). Spring
98 stiffness is used to replicate the presence of the surrounding soil, which partially

99 prevents the volumetric response. Consequently, the normal stress acting on the
100 interface may increase or decrease because of the dilative-contractive behaviour at
101 the pile-soil interface (Fakharian and Evgin 1997). The purpose is to analyse the
102 response of the interfaces between fine-grained soils and concrete to cyclic
103 thermal and mechanical loads and the effects on shear strength. Finally, the
104 combination of the volumetric and shear aspects aims to better represent and
105 understand the fundamental failure mechanism at the soil-concrete interface.

106 **2. Thermovolumetric behaviour of fine-grained soils**

107 Although the first studies on the effects of temperature on the engineering
108 behaviour of soils date back to the 50s and 60s (see the historical perspective
109 provided by Laloui and Cekerevac 2003; McCartney et al. 2019), some of the
110 mechanisms of thermal volume change remain to be understood. The lack of
111 information about loading sequences is one of the main causes that prevent
112 complete understanding. In many studies, details on the thermal and mechanical
113 history of the material did not receive adequate attention (Hueckel et al. 2009).
114 Particularly, the drainage conditions under which heating was performed were not
115 discussed in depth and the time dependency on thermal consolidation was not
116 considered (Coccia and McCartney 2016). Variations in procedures lead to
117 varying outcomes and therefore, observations of studies targeting different
118 applications are difficult to compare. Indeed, the results of each test depend
119 primarily on how the test is performed (Laloui et al. 2014).

120 Based on both the pioneering work of Campanella and Mitchell (1968) and the
121 critical analysis presented by Coccia and McCartney (2016), the current

122 framework identifies three possible mechanisms responsible for the thermal
123 volume change of saturated soils. The first mechanism, thermal primary
124 consolidation, is associated with a time-dependent volumetric contraction of the
125 soil as the pore water pressure generated by the increase in temperature dissipates.
126 Water in the pores of soil matrices has a thermal expansion coefficient
127 approximately 7–12 times greater than that of the solid particles. This generates
128 pore water pressure within the soil, if heated in undrained or drained conditions,
129 for fine-grained soils. In the latter case, a temporary undrained condition is
130 induced as the drainage is usually delayed because of the relatively low
131 permeability of the soil. Therefore, the heating rate and soil permeability are the
132 two predominant factors that govern and influence this thermal volume change
133 mechanism. The second mechanism, thermal secondary compression, is
134 associated with particle rearrangement. Current studies have sought to explain this
135 phenomenon by assuming that physicochemical interactions govern the processes
136 at the microscale. Campanella and Mitchell (1968) suggested that a decrease in
137 the shear strength of inter-particle contacts occurs as temperature increases and
138 that this phenomenon should end when new bonds are developed to carry the
139 induced stresses. In addition, according to Laloui and Rotta Loria (2019), the
140 physicochemical interactions contributing to this phenomenon appear to be (i) the
141 degradation of the adsorbed water layer caused by an increase in temperature
142 (Fleureau 1979; Pusch 1986), (ii) the variations in the rigidities of the mineral
143 involved, which modify the contact force network (Kingery et al. 1976), and (iii)
144 the modifications of the equilibrium between the Van der Waals attractive forces
145 and the electrostatic repulsive forces (Laloui 2001). However, these theories lack

146 experimental observations; thus, they remain unproven. The third mechanism is
147 related to the variation of water viscosity with temperature. An increase in
148 temperature results in a decrease in pore water viscosity. This mechanism is
149 considered to have both the ability to enhance the drainage and to accelerate the
150 thermal secondary compression (Coccia and McCartney 2016).

151 Based on the described traditional framework, the literature links the thermally
152 induced deformation of fine-grained soils mainly to one of these three
153 mechanisms. Finn (1951), Plum and Esrig (1969), Towhata et al. (1993), Romero
154 (1999), Abuel-Naga et al. (2007), and Vega et al. (2012) performed tests in which
155 the heating phase was undrained or incompletely drained (leading to excess pore
156 water pressure generation). Pore water pressure dissipation was allowed after the
157 thermal equilibrium was established. In these cases, the thermal volume change
158 was mainly associated with the effects of pore water dissipation. In the tests
159 conducted by Campanella and Mitchell (1968), Baldi et al. (1991), Hueckel and
160 Pellegrini (1996), and Cekerevac and Laloui (2004), the volumetric strain of the
161 soils during the drained heating was calculated based on the volume of water
162 expelled from the saturated samples. In all these cases, the observations were
163 made when the temperature T stabilised (i.e., $T=const$ over time). Therefore, the
164 deformations observed after heating were attributed to the rearrangement of
165 particles. Soil skeleton rearrangement resulted from allowing the samples to be
166 maintained at a constant temperature after a change in temperature occurred; thus,
167 it was more related to the long-lasting action of the heat on the clay. Furthermore,
168 more recent studies have related thermal consolidation with thermal secondary
169 compression (Di Donna and Laloui 2015; Shetty et al. 2019). Burghignoli et al.

170 (2000) considered the deformations observed after heating as an amplification of
171 those related to creep deformation of the soil skeleton at a constant temperature.
172 This concept of “thermally accelerated creep” was also revived by Coccia and
173 McCartney (2016), where the volume changes were attributed to the variation in
174 pore water viscosity with temperature. Therefore, it refers to the third mechanism
175 originally proposed by Paaswell (1967).

176 Nevertheless, attributing the volumetric response to a single mechanism is not
177 sufficient for describing this phenomenon completely. Gaps and contradictions
178 persist in each of them. Logically, all mechanisms are considered to contribute to
179 the observed global response; additionally, the prevalence of one mechanism over
180 another depends on the load history to which the sample is subjected. Moreover,
181 the time factor, both in the heating rate adopted and in the interpretation of the
182 consolidation curve, plays a decisive role.

183 One of the main challenges at the macroscopic scale (i.e., when soil is idealised
184 as a superimposed continua) is the relative role of primary consolidation and
185 secondary compression in the volumetric response of fine-grained soils (Rotta
186 Loria and Coulibaly 2020). Special attention has been devoted to this issue in the
187 interpretation phase of the experimental results of this study. In addition, by
188 focusing on energy piles, the current knowledge is mainly based on lessons
189 learned from research on other applications (mainly nuclear waste storage) and
190 there are therefore some differences in the stress paths to which the sample should
191 be exposed, such as the cyclic variations (heating and cooling) and temperature
192 ranges investigated. Recently, Di Donna and Laloui (2015) made efforts in this
193 direction; however, there are still few experimental results to date. All these

194 aspects, as well as the time dependency, require further understanding and have
195 therefore been addressed in this study.

196 **2.1 Experimental investigation in oedometric conditions**

197 This section aims to present several experimental results that are significant for
198 the application of energy piles, focusing on the engineering aspects of the
199 thermomechanical behaviour of fine-grained soils.

200 Thermovolumetric behaviour is studied through oedometric tests. Temperature
201 variations are cyclic and cooling phenomena are involved; they occur in drained
202 conditions. Moreover, an interpretation procedure based on mechanical analogy is
203 proposed, in which the time dependency of the thermal consolidation is
204 considered. The following sections provide details on the apparatus, sample
205 preparation, and experimental procedures adopted in the tests.

206 **2.1.1 Materials and method**

207 *Materials*

208 A clayey soil with a mineralogical composition of 77% illite, 10% kaolinite,
209 12% calcite, and traces of feldspar and quartz was used in the experiments. At
210 laboratory conditions (Temperature, $T = 20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$), the clayey soil had a liquid limit
211 of 56%, plastic limit of 32%, plasticity index of 24%, and specific gravity of 2.65.
212 The particle size distribution is shown in Figure 2.

213 The clay was maintained in the laboratory in powder form with a hygroscopic
214 water content of approximately 5%.

215 *Sample preparation*

216 A hydraulic press (Wykeham Farrance Eng. Ltd.) was used to prepare the
217 samples via static uniaxial compaction. The press was equipped with a load cell

(BLH U3G1, maximum vertical force 22 kN, accuracy 1 N) and a linear variable differential transformer (LVDT) (HBM W 10 TK, accuracy 1 μm). The air-dried powder under laboratory conditions was mixed with the required amount of water to achieve an initial water content of 36%. The mixture was stored in airtight containers for at least three days for moisture equilibration. For the compaction, the soil mass was confined in a rigid mould, and a variable static force was gradually applied through the movement of a piston in the strain-controlled press, until the desired dry density of 1.10 Mg/m^3 was reached. The setup was designed to keep the water content constant during the compaction. This corresponds to a process of compressing a partially saturated sample under undrained conditions. The compaction velocity was controlled through the motor of the machine, at a piston travel rate of 0.5 mm/min. The maximum vertical compaction stress was 82 kPa. After compaction, the samples were trimmed down in the corresponding oedometric ring. A height of 45 mm (corresponding to three oedometric samples, being the height of the oedometric ring 15 mm) was chosen to allow two samples to be prepared simultaneously. Parallel tests were conducted to ensure repeatability of the results. The remaining material was used for water content control. At this stage, size and weight measurements of the samples were recorded to determine the initial conditions.

237 *Equipment*

238 The clayey soil was tested in specially designed temperature-controlled
239 oedometric cells (Figure 3). The experimental setup was developed by Di Donna
240 and Laloui (2015); it consisted of various oedometric cells equipped with a
241 hydraulic temperature control system. Each cell was heated using a spiral tube

242 positioned around the sample, through which water was circulated at the desired
243 temperature. The hydraulic circuit was connected to a thermal bath, which had the
244 dual function of maintaining the temperature and introducing water into the
245 system using a pump. This system allowed for heating and cooling cycles to be
246 performed. The delay and the difference in temperature between the thermal
247 variation in the heating system and the real temperature change within the sample
248 were assessed during the calibration process. For this purpose, the relationship
249 between the imposed temperature and the temperature inside the cell was carefully
250 determined using a series of thermocouples (Thermocoax type K, Chromel-
251 Alumel, 2AB 35 DIN, resolution 0.01 °C). Thermal losses were minimised by
252 using a polystyrene box as an insulating system around the cells. In addition, the
253 equipment was carefully calibrated to assess the deformability of the cells under
254 thermal and mechanical loads. The vertical displacement of the sample was
255 measured using an LVDT (HBM W 10 TK, accuracy 1 µm), which had to account
256 for the deformation of the device. To correct the measured vertical displacement,
257 a steel sample with a known linear thermal expansion coefficient and Young's
258 modulus was used during the calibration tests. The oedometric conditions were
259 ensured using an invar oedometric ring which guarantee the minimisation of
260 thermal radial deformation. During the calibration tests, the same loading paths
261 and configuration adopted subsequently in the real tests were applied. Finally,
262 saturation conditions were maintained using a water supply system that
263 compensated for water evaporation.

264 *Experimental programme*

265 The experimental campaign aimed to characterise the cyclic thermovolumetric
266 response of clayey soils by applying stress paths representative of the real
267 conditions of the soil in situ when an energy pile foundation is in operation. It
268 consisted of saturated oedometric tests, in which thermal cyclic loads were
269 applied under a constant mechanical load. Temperature and vertical stress were
270 the two variables controlled during the tests; the imposed values of these variables
271 were defined based on the operating ranges of the energy piles.

272 The experimental work included three types of tests involving heating-cooling
273 cycles at different constant vertical stresses and different overconsolidation ratios
274 (OCRs). For each type of test, two samples were tested in parallel to ensure
275 repeatability of the results. Standard oedometric tests were performed to
276 characterise the material. Table 1 provides a summary of the variables that
277 distinguish the tests. Figure 4 shows the thermomechanical paths of the tests.
278 Regarding the mechanical load, the consolidation was performed following the
279 ASTM D2435/2435M-11 standard. The saturation phase was performed by
280 flushing the sample without back pressure saturation. Although according to the
281 ASTM D2435/2435M-11 standard, inundation of the test sample is not always a
282 guarantee of achieving complete saturation, the final degree of saturation was
283 computed to be approximately 90% or higher in all the tests. Therefore, a quasi-
284 saturated state was achieved in all the tests. During the initial saturation phase, the
285 sample was allowed to swell. Nonetheless, the initial void ratio was preserved,
286 considering the low swelling potential of the material. Table 2 shows the initial
287 conditions of the samples after the saturation phase. After saturation, the tests
288 were conducted in two distinct stages. In the first stage, a conventional

mechanical consolidation was performed where load increments of constant total axial stress were applied to the sample until a target vertical stress was reached. In the second stage, drained heating-cooling cycles were performed. Five (i.e., 15 days) and two (i.e., 6 days) complete heating-cooling cycles were conducted for Test 1, and Test 2 and 3, respectively. The temperatures investigated were in the $T=10 \div 40$ °C range. Attention was paid to heating and cooling rates to avoid the generation of significant excess pore water pressure at a rate of 2.0 °C/h. Observations from previous in-situ tests (Mimouni and Laloui 2015; Sutman 2016; Rotta Loria and Laloui 2017a) highlighted that the temperature changes induced in the soil occurred in drained conditions.

2.1.2 Test results

One of the challenges of testing under non-isothermal conditions is the lack of standards and interpretation procedures, making it difficult to compare results among different studies.

In this section, the proposed procedure is based on the analogy of the consolidation process caused by pressure changes and thermal variations (Campanella and Mitchell 1968). In the context of energy piles, this approach is convenient because it allows analysing the effects of mechanical and thermal loads for the design of a foundation, according to the classic scheme of geotechnical analysis.

In one-dimensional incremental mechanical loading tests, the experimental data represent a consolidation, partly resulting from the dissipation of pore water pressure (generated by the applied load) and partly from creep phenomena. For this analysis, only the consolidation corresponding to the dissipation of pore water

313 pressure (i.e., primary consolidation) is of interest. This is defined in time-
314 deformation curves typically using the Log Time Method, where it is identified as
315 the intersection of two straight lines; the first made tangentially to the inflexion
316 point and the second coinciding with the final part of the experimental curve. An
317 alternative procedure is to use the Square Root of Time Method.

318 A similar interpretation procedure for the thermal load is shown in Figure 5. A
319 normally consolidated (NC) soil sample is first heated in drained conditions (i.e.,
320 2 °C/h for 10 increments). At each temperature increment, the sample initially
321 dilates owing to the thermal expansion of the soil constituents. Drainage is usually
322 delayed because of the relatively low permeability of the clay and the impedance
323 effects of the ceramic disc (Campanella and Mitchell 1968; Romero 1999). After
324 ten increments (i.e., for approximately every 20-degree increase in temperature),
325 the excess pore water pressure was allowed to completely dissipate, keeping the
326 temperature constant for a prolonged time. Figure 5a shows the intersection of the
327 two straight lines, identified based on a procedure similar to that used in the
328 mechanical case, corresponding to the end of the primary consolidation. Evidence
329 shows that, given a drained thermal increase, the primary consolidation is
330 minimised as attention was placed to avoid creating excessive pore pressures in
331 the sample; additionally, most of the thermal consolidation is associated with the
332 secondary compression. This result agrees with the observations made by
333 Campanella and Mitchell (1968), Burghignoli et al. (2000), Shetty et al. (2019),
334 according to which the deformations are mainly attributed to secondary
335 compression. Soil skeleton rearrangement results from allowing the sample to
336 remain at constant temperature after a temperature change. Therefore, it is related

337 to the long-duration effects of heat on clay. Thermal primary consolidation
338 becomes more important for the low permeability and high heating rate because of
339 the higher pore pressure generation. Figure 5b shows the same interpretation
340 procedure adopted for the 5th cycle. Notably, the primary consolidation and
341 secondary compression can be recognised as in the first cycle. In this case, the
342 secondary compression is almost negligible as particle rearrangement already
343 occurred in the first cycles and a stable configuration of the solid particles is
344 progressively reached. Figure 6 shows the same features of Figure 5, but for an
345 over consolidated (OC) clay. In OC conditions, the available space for inducing
346 additional collapse is reduced compared to NC conditions. Therefore, the particle
347 rearrangement is limited. In this case, as expected, the secondary compression did
348 not occur in the first cycle due to the soil structure being more stable.

349 During the cooling phase, the constituents contract leading to a stable
350 configuration of the solid particles; thus, as a result of this phase, there is no
351 rearrangement of the particles for neither NC nor OC clays.

352 The main observation is that cyclic loads contribute more to primary
353 consolidation as temperature changes are continuous over time. The effect of pore
354 pressure generation and dissipation on the volumetric behaviour depends on
355 factors such as the heating-cooling rate and permeability of the soil. Secondary
356 compression, however, is attributed to the presence of an elevated temperature (in
357 the case of heating) for extended periods. This can be recognised as an indirect
358 effect of cyclic loads. Different ground temperatures than the initial temperature
359 result from unbalanced heating and cooling cycles. Indeed, cycle imbalance can
360 lead to an average ground temperature that deviates from the initial one in the

361 long term. Therefore, the long-lasting effects must be considered in the long-term
362 design. In this regard, the work of Campanella and Mitchell (1968), Baldi et al.
363 (1991), Hueckel and Pellegrini (1996), and Cekerevac and Laloui (2004), in
364 which observations of volumetric strain with temperatures referred to a condition
365 in which the temperature stabilised and remained constant for an extended period,
366 are useful. In addition, temperature increases may influence time-dependent
367 effects such as creep (Leroueil and Soares Marques 1996; Mitchell and Soga
368 2005; Laloui et al. 2008).

369 The results of this study focus primarily on the effects of cyclic thermal loads.
370 Therefore, the points shown in Figure 8 identify the deformations of the sample
371 resulting from the thermal load at the end of the primary consolidation, as
372 commonly reported in the oedometric curves interpreted according to the method
373 of Casagrande or Taylor for mechanical loads. The standard oedometric results,
374 which refer to Test 0, are shown as an example in Figure 7. Notably, although the
375 loading process is to be considered drained in the case of fine-grained soils,
376 drainage is usually delayed because of the relatively low permeability
377 (Campanella and Mitchell 1968). Therefore, it is possible to distinguish the
378 primary consolidation (in this case reduced to a minimum given the drained
379 loading process) and the secondary compression (as explained in the previous
380 paragraph concerning Figures 5 and 6). Based on the results in Figure 8, which
381 refer only to the primary thermal consolidation, very low residual strain variations
382 are observed within the temperature range analysed. During temperature cycles
383 (i.e., temperature variations) the soil components expand when heated and
384 contract when cooled leading to very small residual strain. The phenomenon is

385 observed both in samples under NC (Figure 8a) and OC conditions (Figure 8c). In
386 the case of higher confinement (i.e., 1000 kPa), the behaviour is also similar for
387 the temperature ranges analysed (Figure 8b). However, a greater tendency to
388 contract at the end of the primary consolidation is observed, which is attributed to
389 the increase in pore pressure owing to lower porosity. Comparison between
390 mechanically induced axial strain (Figure 7) and thermally induced axial strain
391 (Figure 8), associated with the operation of the energy piles, highlight that the
392 latter is significantly small (2-3 order of magnitudes smaller than mechanical
393 ones). Although residual thermal strain variations have been observed, these
394 appear to be small and negligible from a practical perspective. Therefore, the
395 assumption of a reversible behaviour may be justified in analysis approaches for
396 energy piles.

397 Multiple tests were conducted in parallel under the same conditions to ensure the
398 repeatability of the phenomena.

399 The interpretation presented may serve as a basis for a future standardisation
400 process of thermomechanical tests in geotechnical engineering. The contributions
401 of these experimental results add knowledge on the thermovolumetric behaviour
402 of fine-grained soils and provide an answer on how the soil behaves with a focus
403 on cyclic loads. Usually, this is sufficient for resolving geotechnical issues. More
404 fundamental questions related to the description of microscale processes (i.e.,
405 physicochemical processes that occur in the soil at the particle level) that
406 influence macroscopic behaviour are not addressed in this study.

407 Based on these results, it is possible to make some considerations for the
408 analysis and design of energy piles and highlight how neglecting the temperature

sensitivity of the volumetric behaviour of the soil may be justified, e.g., using simplified analysis approaches (Rotta Loria and Laloui 2016, 2017b; Sutman et al. 2019; Ravera et al. 2020a, 2020b). In addition, considering these results, when analysing the soil-concrete interface failure mechanism, reversible volumetric deformations imply that the boundary conditions of the interface are not affected by the temperature cycles.

3. Thermomechanical behaviour of the fine-grained soil-concrete interface

An effective stress approach for both coarse- and fine-grained soils is applied today in the evaluation of pile capacity. Therefore, two aspects need to be considered as a result of the effects of thermal loads: (i) the possible variation of the pile-soil interface angle of shear strength, which may be approximated as the soil angle of the shear strength under constant volume conditions and (ii) the variation of the normal effective stress acting on the pile shaft, which is associated with volume changes. Most of the research to date has focused on the first aspect. Hueckel and Pellegrini (1989), Hueckel and Baldi (1990), Robinet et al. (1997), Burghignoli et al. (2000), Graham et al. (2001), Cekerevac and Laloui (2004), Ghahremannejad (2003), Yavari et al. (2016), Li et al. (2019), and Maghsoodi et al. (2020) performed studies on clay to assess the angle of shear strength under non-isothermal conditions for different thermal paths. Few studies have been conducted on the thermal effects on the interface shear strength. Recently, Di Donna et al. (2016), Yavari et al. (2016), Li et al. (2019) Yazdani et al. (2019) and Maghsoodi et al. (2020) have performed clay-structure interface tests. Despite some potential variations that turned out to be negligible, all these studies

433 concluded that, from a practical perspective, the angle of shear strength appears to
434 be essentially independent of temperature. When addressing aspect (ii), Di Donna
435 et al. (2016) and Maghsoodi et al. (2020) performed CNS tests at different
436 temperatures where changes in normal stress refer to mechanical shearing. To
437 date, however, no study provides information on the variations of normal stress,
438 referring to variations due solely to thermal cycles which better represents the
439 actual conditions at the pile-soil interface during the operation of the energy
440 foundation.

441 **3.1 Experimental investigation with direct shear tests**

442 The experimental study presented in this paper to investigate the cyclic
443 thermomechanical response of fine-grained soil-concrete interfaces is based on
444 direct shear tests. This test has been recognised as the most representative of the
445 failure mechanism occurring at the pile-soil interface, as it examines both the
446 effects of interface volume changes and the characteristic of surface discontinuity
447 (Boulon and Foray 1986; Boulon 1989; Boulon and Nova 1990; Boulon et al.
448 1995; Ghionna and Mortara 2002; Pra-ai and Boulon 2017). The objective is to
449 provide results for the typical temperature ranges of energy piles where both CNS
450 conditions and cyclic thermal loads are applied simultaneously. These aspects
451 represent the subject matter of this study, as these loading conditions are the most
452 representative of the operation of energy piles and, to date, no results are available
453 in these conditions.

454 **3.1.1 Materials and method**

455 *Materials and sample preparation*

456 The soil used was the same as that used in the oedometric tests. The samples
457 were prepared with the same technique adopted for the oedometric samples, as
458 described above. After compaction, the samples were trimmed down in the direct
459 shear frame with minimal disturbance and were placed in the testing
460 configuration.

461 To perform the interface direct shear tests, a concrete sample was designed and
462 used as the structure. The concrete was prepared in the laboratory in special
463 moulds following the BS EN 206-1:2000 standard; the specifications are shown in
464 Table 3. The roughness of the concrete surface was measured with a Bruker 3D
465 optical microscope (Figure 9). Owing to the size limit of the images, it was not
466 possible to scan the entire surface of the samples. Therefore, special attention was
467 placed on the production of a concrete sample with surface homogeneity. A 12
468 ×12 mm area was subsequently identified as being representative of the entire
469 surface. Image processing involved the analysis of profiles, every 0.4 mm, parallel
470 to the shear direction (x-direction in Figure 9). To determine the roughness of the
471 interface, each profile was divided into a fixed length $L = 0.5$ mm, and the
472 maximum roughness R_{max} was measured at each L . An average R_{max} of 96 μm was
473 obtained, which is within the usual range for concrete surfaces, according to
474 Yoshimi and Kishida (1981).

475 *Equipment*

476 The experimental device adopted in this work was a modified version of the
477 direct shear device produced by GDS instruments described in Di Donna et al.
478 (2016). In the previous version, three main modifications were made to adapt the
479 apparatus to the application of heating episodes at the concrete-soil interface: (i)

480 the lower part of the shear box, accommodating the concrete sample and heating
481 system, was redesigned to have a constant contact area between the two materials
482 and a larger space for installing the thermal system; (ii) the possibility of
483 imposing CNS conditions was implemented in the GDSLAB software; and (iii) a
484 heating system composed of an electrical resistance, electrical power supplier,
485 insulation system, and thermocouples was introduced.

486 For the present study, further modifications were applied to the direct shear
487 device to allow the application of cooling episodes to reproduce the in-situ energy
488 pile-soil interaction on a laboratory scale. First, the lower part of the shear box
489 was reproduced by opening holes on its wall, through which circulation tubes
490 were introduced inside. Additionally, a thermal bath was attached to the
491 circulation tubes to ensure that the circulating water had the target temperatures
492 and to enable the heating and cooling episodes. For this purpose, the relationship
493 between the applied temperature, the temperature in the water, and the
494 temperature inside the cell was carefully determined using a series of
495 thermocouples (Thermocoax type K, Chromel-Alumel, 2AB 35 DIN, resolution
496 0.01 °C). During the calibration, thermocouples were inserted into the cell that
497 was in contact with a sample specifically dedicated to this stage. Four of these
498 thermocouples were permanently placed in the water container around the cell to
499 monitor temperature evolution throughout the testing campaign. The shear box
500 was insulated using polystyrene to minimise heat loss and temperature variations
501 of the sensors. Horizontal and vertical displacements were measured using two
502 LVDTs (accuracy 1 μm). Two load cells (maximum vertical force 5 kN, accuracy
503 0.001 kN) measured the horizontal and vertical loads applied to the sample.

504 During the calibration tests, the same loading paths were applied to steel samples
505 using the same configuration that was applied subsequently in the real tests.

506 Additionally, a water supply system was installed to ensure saturation conditions.

507 The direct shear device, with the new built-in changes, was capable of applying
508 subsequent and multiple heating-cooling cycles to the samples and could thus
509 simulate the actual soil conditions in the vicinity of the energy piles. The modified
510 direct shear device (Figure 10) was used to investigate various conditions related
511 to the field of energy piles.

512 *Experimental program*

513 Preliminary tests were performed under constant normal load (CNL) and CNS
514 conditions for soil-soil and soil-concrete samples under isothermal conditions.

515 However, the main objective of this experimental campaign was to perform tests
516 under non-isothermal conditions in which the samples are subjected to cyclic
517 thermal loads. The goal is to simulate the effects of the operation of the energy
518 piles on the ultimate shear response.

519 In general, the load paths applied were characterised by the following steps: (i)
520 Saturation. (ii) Consolidation under constant mechanical load. In all cases, the
521 samples consisted of clayey soil under NC conditions. (iii) Three thermal cycles
522 (i.e., 5 days) were performed using a heating rate of 2.0 °C/h and a temperature
523 range of $T = 10 \div 40$ °C. Therefore, at this stage, the thermal stress path was
524 analogous to that in the oedometric tests; the only difference was that in this case,
525 to simulate the conditions of volume change at the pile-soil interface more
526 accurately, the third phase was executed under CNS conditions. (iv) Monotonic
527 shearing was performed under CNS conditions at ambient temperature, with an

528 applied strain rate of 0.003 mm/min after the application of cyclic thermal loads.
529 Specifically, for tests conducted under isothermal conditions, the third phase
530 described above was not performed, and the fourth phase was executed under both
531 CNL and CNS conditions. Conventional tests were performed following the
532 specifications of the ASTM D3080/D3080M-11 standard. Table 4 summarises the
533 main variables of all the test performed. Table 5 summarises the initial conditions
534 of the samples. Additionally, Figure 11 shows the stress paths.

535 **3.1.2 Test results**

536 Preliminary tests were performed as reference cases for comparison to better
537 clarify the role of interface, and CNS conditions with respect to the role of
538 temperature for the soil used in these experiments. Therefore, Figure 12 represents
539 a characterisation of the behaviour of the soil and the soil-interface under
540 isothermal conditions. Soil-interface tests in CNS conditions were used as a
541 reference for the test where thermal cycles were applied. The results in Figure 12
542 refers to samples that are NC after the consolidation phase and, consequently, the
543 material do not show any peak. Accordingly, the material contracts during the
544 shear tests. Similar results were obtained by Di Donna et al. (2016) when
545 comparing the soil-soil (Test 4) and soil-concrete (Test 6) test profiles under CNL
546 conditions, where soil failure was assumed to occur. The comparison of the soil-
547 concrete test profiles under CNL and CNS conditions (i.e., Tests 6 and 7,
548 respectively) is similar to the behaviour of a loose sand/smooth interface
549 observed, for instance, by Porcino et al. (2003). A reduction in maximum shear
550 stress can be observed with an increase in the stiffness. Simultaneously, the
551 increase in normal stiffness causes a reduction in the current normal stress. The

552 above effects can be correlated with the contractive behaviour exhibited by the
553 material. A contraction yields to a decrease of the current normal stress,
554 corresponding to a decrease of the shear stress, as a consequence of the elastic
555 constraint provided by the soil surrounding the interface.

556 Figure 13 shows four clay-concrete interface tests performed under CNS
557 conditions. Tests 7 and 9 refer to a standard CNS direct shear test in which a
558 purely mechanical stress path is applied. For these tests, the third step described
559 earlier was not performed. The results of the shearing phase, following the cyclic
560 thermal loads, are represented by Tests 8 and 10. Notably, the application of
561 thermal loads has a negligible effect on shear stress in the shearing phase. The
562 variations in the shear strength angles are minimal and are not crucial in the
563 definition of the failure envelope, which remains practically unaffected (Figure
564 14). Some differences in the axial displacement are attributed to the effect of time
565 because, in Tests 8 and 10, shearing occurs after the thermal cycles (i.e., 7 days),
566 and minor importance is attributed to the cyclic thermal consolidation. Volume
567 changes when applying thermal loads under CNS conditions are in the order of
568 magnitude of those measured during the oedometric tests (Figure 15). The non-
569 linear behaviour of the device at this test stage makes precise quantification
570 difficult. However, with almost no effect, it is possible to assume that the volume
571 change is not significant for the shear resistance under the investigated conditions
572 (i.e., there are no significant changes in the effective normal stress during the
573 thermal cycle as shown in Figure 15).

574 Additionally, the failure mechanism of the soil-structure interface within the
575 framework of elastoplasticity is discussed by Ravera and Laloui (2020)¹, and a
576 constitutive model applicable to both conventional and energy piles is described.

577

578 **4. Conclusion**

579 The cyclic thermomechanical behaviour of the soil-concrete interface was
580 investigated by performing a testing programme including cyclic thermal tests
581 under constant vertical effective stress in oedometric conditions, and CNS
582 interface direct shear tests, where the samples have been subjected to thermal
583 cycles. The main objective was to experimentally analyse the soil-concrete
584 interface failure mechanism of energy piles. The shear behaviour of the soil-pile
585 interface is characterised by large localised strains concentrated in a thin layer
586 around the pile, i.e., the interface zone, surrounded by soil behaving in oedometric
587 conditions. The tests conducted allowed the volumetric and shear aspects that
588 characterise the failure mechanism to be analysed first separately and then in
589 combination.

590 The framework proposed here provides answers on how the soil-concrete
591 interface responds to thermal and mechanical loads, which is useful for solving
592 geotechnical problems. This study extrapolates information of interest (e.g.,
593 consolidation behaviour and failure envelopes) to an engineering application such
594 as energy piles.

¹ Ravera, E., and Laloui, L. 2020. Failure mechanism of soil-structure interface for energy piles. Canadian Geotechnical Journal. (*under review*).

595 The results of the thermovolumetric behaviour study show very low residual
596 strain variations towards cyclic thermal variations. This means that the boundary
597 conditions of the interface zone are not altered by the temperature cycle. In
598 addition, this section presents an interpretation procedure based on the mechanical
599 analogy with the advantage of analysing the effects of mechanical and thermal
600 loads for an energy pile design according to the classical scheme of geotechnical
601 analysis. The presented procedure can provide a basis for the development of new
602 testing standards. Presently, the lack of standards and interpretation procedures is
603 one of the major issues that hinder the extension of this technology from academia
604 to industry. Therefore, the development of testing methods and equipment
605 designed for engineering purposes can facilitate the spread of this technology.

606 The main interest in analysing the pile-soil interface behaviour is associated with
607 the fact that the greater the volume variation under cyclic loads, the greater the
608 probability of shear resistance degradation (i.e., reduction of normal stress). For
609 this purpose, a direct shear test device was modified to enable the application of
610 heating-cooling cycles under CNS conditions. The results of this study show that
611 the probability of pile shear resistance degradation, when subjected to a thermal
612 cyclic load is minimal and that changes in the failure envelope are negligible.
613 With these insignificant effects, volume change does not appear to be decisive in
614 affecting shear resistance (i.e., there are no significant variations in effective
615 normal stress during a thermal cycle).

616 It is acknowledged that the results are valid for the sequence of the applied
617 heating and cooling cycles in this study. The relevance of these observations in

the event that the cooling cycle precedes the one of heating requires further investigation.

Based on these results, it is possible to make some considerations for the analysis and design of energy piles. From a practical perspective, the results show an almost reversible volumetric behaviour and negligible effects on shear strength of the soil-concrete interface towards cyclic thermal loads. Thus, neglecting temperature sensitivity may be justified, as when simplified analysis methods are used in the preliminary design stages.

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Table 1. Thermal cycle oedometer: test variables

Test N°	Label	Sample N°	OCR	Confining pressure [kPa]	Rate of heating [°C/h]	T range [°C]	ΔT [°C]	N° of cycles
0	SO	S0 S0bis	-	0 ÷ 1000	-	-	-	-
1	TO_NC_125	S1 S1bis	1	125	2	10 ÷ 40	+20/-10	5
2	TO_NC_1000	S2 S2bis	1	1000	2	10 ÷ 40	+20/-10	2
3	TO_OC_125	S3 S3bis	2	125	2	10 ÷ 40	+20/-10	2

Table 2. Thermal cycle oedometer: initial conditions of the samples

Test N°	Sample N°	w [%]	e [-]	ρ_s [Mg/m ³]	ρ [Mg/m ³]
0	S0	35.2	1.405	2.65	1.49
	S0bis	35.2	1.404	2.65	1.49
1	S1	35.7	1.410	2.65	1.49
	S1bis	35.7	1.421	2.65	1.49
2	S2	35.2	1.418	2.65	1.48
	S2bis	35.2	1.416	2.65	1.48
3	S3	35.1	1.414	2.65	1.48
	S3bis	35.1	1.415	2.65	1.48

Table 3. Concrete mix design

Concrete mix design	BS EN 206-1:2000
Cement	
Aggregate	0-16 mm
Water/cement	0.6
Aggregate/cement	6

Table 4. Direct shear tests: test variables

Test N°	Label	Sample N°	OCR	Initial normal stress [kPa]	Shear condition	Rate of shearing [mm/min]	ΔT [°C]	N° of cycles
4	SS_CNL_125	S4	1	125	CNL K=0 kPa/mm	0.003	-	-
5	SS_CNS_125	S5	1	125	CNS K=200 kPa/mm	0.003	-	-
6	SC_CNL_125	S6	1	125	CNL K=0 kPa/mm	0.003	-	-
7	SC_CNS_125	S7	1	125	CNS K=200 kPa/mm	0.003	-	-
8	SC_CNS_125_T	S8	1	125	CNS K=200 kPa/mm	0.003	+20/-10	3
9	SC_CNS_250	S9	1	250	CNS K=200 kPa/mm	0.003	-	-
10	SC_CNS_250_T	S10	1	250	CNS K=200 kPa/mm	0.003	+20/-10	3

Table 5. Direct shear tests: initial conditions of the samples

Test N°	Sample N°	w [%]	e [-]	ρ_s [Mg/m ³]	ρ [Mg/m ³]
4	S4	35.8	1.400	2.65	1.50
5	S5	36.3	1.400	2.65	1.50
6	S6	35.6	1.400	2.65	1.50
7	S7	36.2	1.400	2.65	1.50
8	S8	34.6	1.400	2.65	1.49
9	S9	34.5	1.400	2.65	1.49
10	S10	35.5	1.400	2.65	1.50

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Figure 1. Schematic representation of the failure mechanism that occurs at the pile interface: (a) large localised strains are concentrated in a thin layer around the pile, i.e., the interface, (b) modelling approach of the interface zone, and (c) interface failure mechanism, where a shear band is detached from the surrounding soil that behaves in oedometric conditions, reproduced in the laboratory. (u and w are the axial and shear displacement respectively; σ and τ are the normal and shear stress respectively; K is the spring stiffness)

Figure 2. Particle size distribution of the clayey soil used in the experiments. Atterberg's limits: liquid limit 56 %, plastic limit 32%, plasticity index 24%. Mineralogical composition: 77% illite, 10% kaolinite, 12% calcite, and traces of feldspar and quartz

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Figure 13. Clay-concrete interface tests under CNS conditions: (solid) being subjected to thermal cycles, (dash) not subjected to thermal cycles. (a) stress-strain behaviour; (b) Mohr plane: load paths and failure behaviour; (c) dilatancy effects, and (d) volumetric behaviour

Figure 14. Clay-concrete interface failure envelopes for testing under CNS conditions: (black) being subjected to thermal cycles, (grey) not subjected to thermal cycles

Figure 15. (a) Comparison between measured axial strain under CNL and CNS conditions during a heating-cooling cycle. (b) Measured normal effective stress variation during a heating-cooling thermal cycle

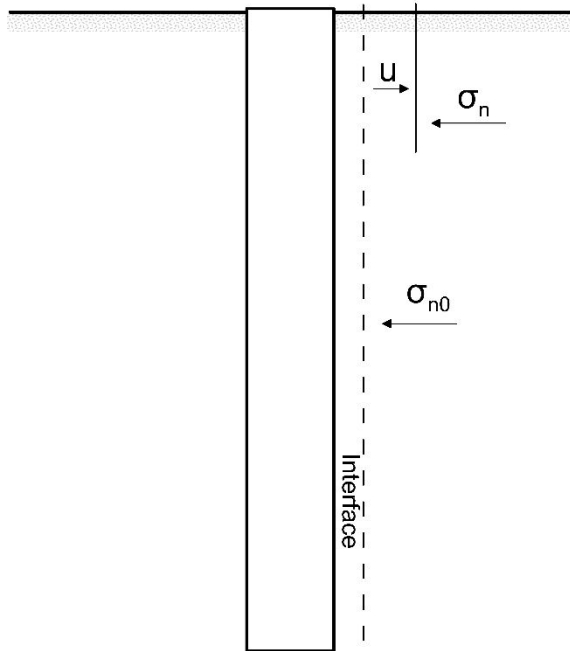
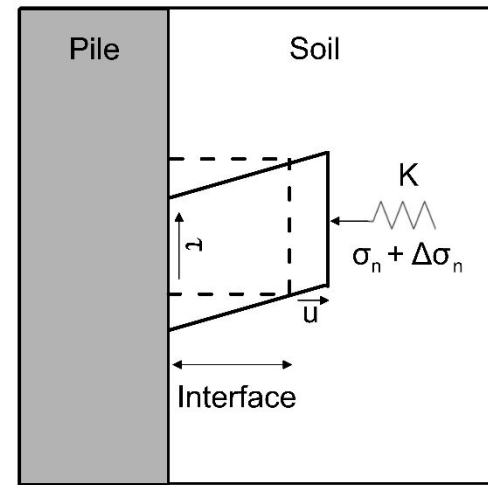
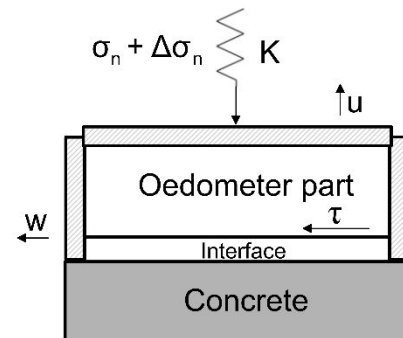
(a) In situ conditions(b) Detail(c) Laboratory conditions

Figure 1. Schematic representation of the failure mechanism that occurs at the pile interface: (a) large localised strains are concentrated in a thin layer around the pile, i.e., the interface, (b) modelling approach of the interface zone, and (c) interface failure mechanism, where a shear band is detached from the surrounding soil that behaves in oedometric conditions, reproduced in the laboratory. (u and w are the axial and shear displacement respectively; σ and τ are the normal and shear stress respectively; K is the spring stiffness)

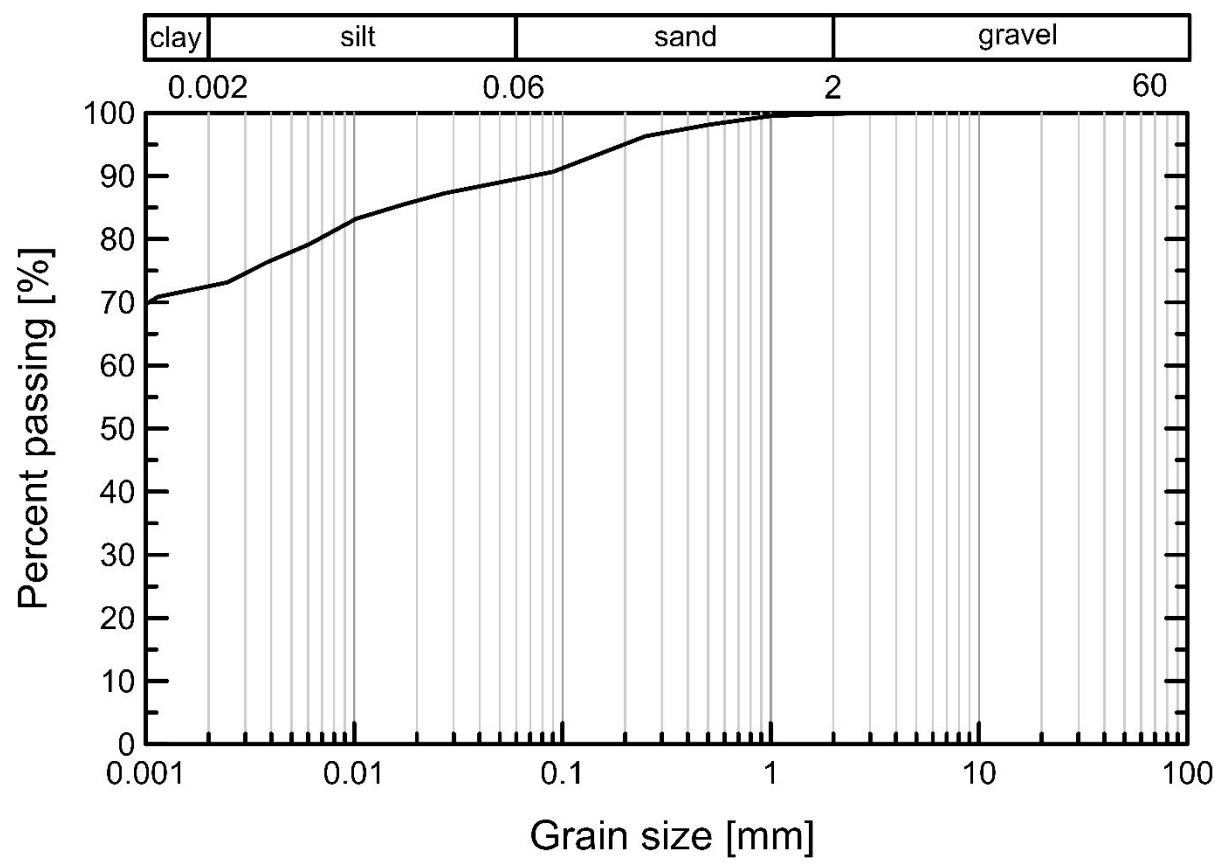


Figure 2. Particle size distribution of the clayey soil used in the experiments. Atterberg’s limits: liquid limit 56 %, plastic limit 32%, plasticity index 24%. Mineralogical composition: 77% illite, 10% kaolinite, 12% calcite, and traces of feldspar and quartz

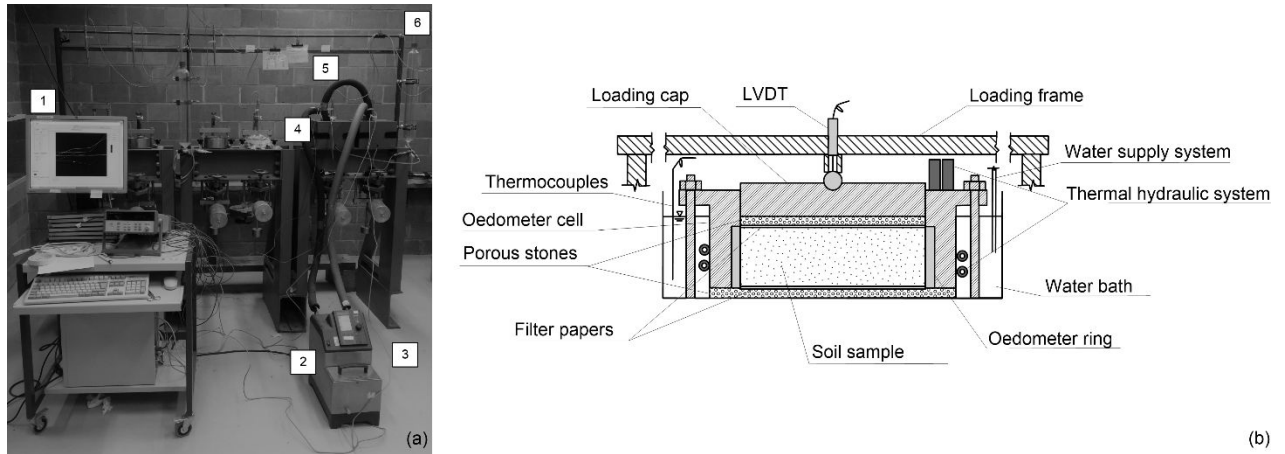


Figure 3. Temperature-controlled oedometric cell: (a) global view of the system (1: software control and datalogger thermocouples, 2: thermal bath, 3: thermocouples, 4: insulation, 5: thermal hydraulic system, and 6: water supply system). (b) schematic representation of the temperature-controlled oedometric cell

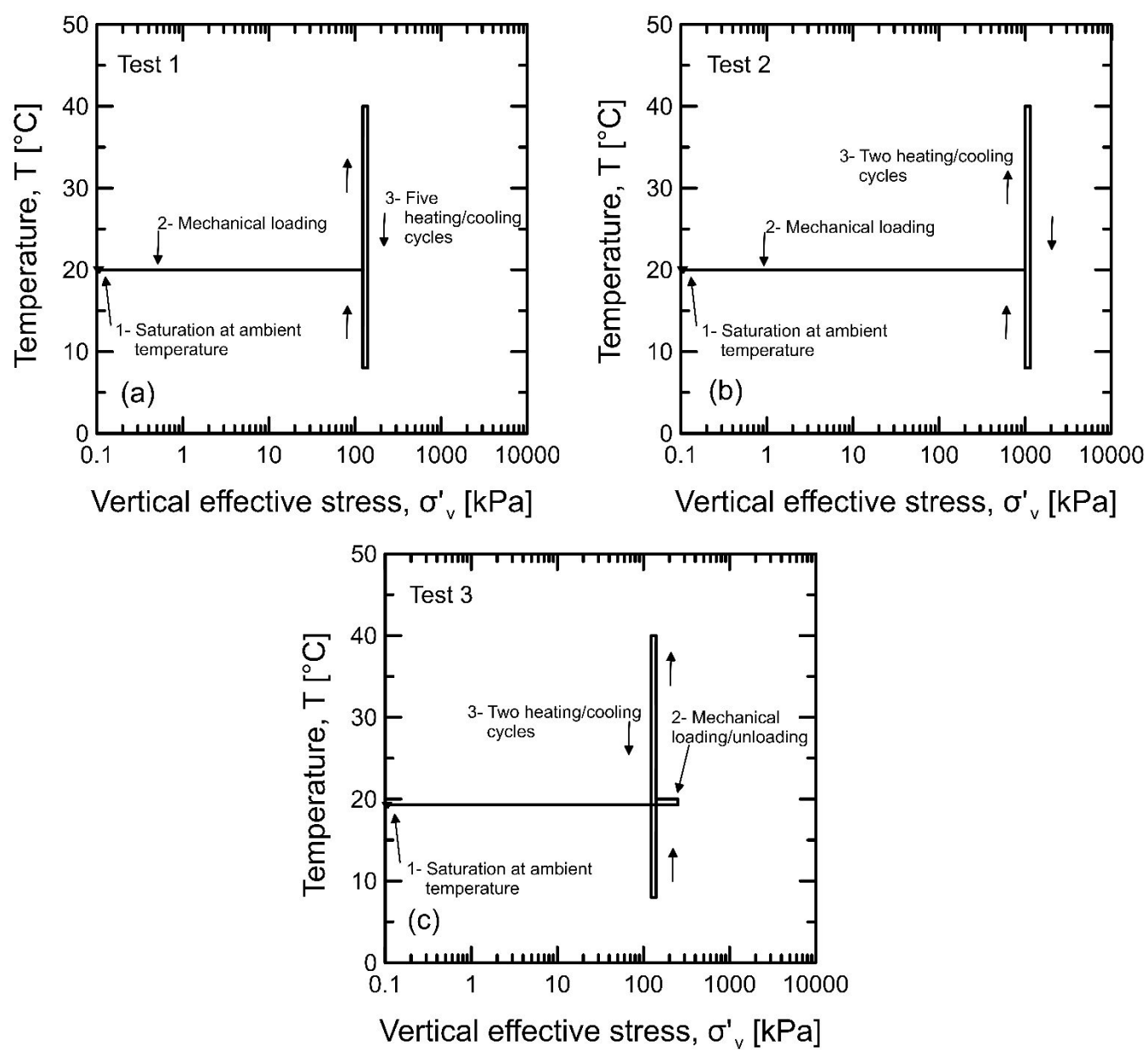


Figure 4. Oedometer thermomechanical paths. Heating-cooling cycles at constant vertical effective stress for normally consolidated clayey samples (Tests 1 and 2) and overconsolidated clayey samples (Test 3)

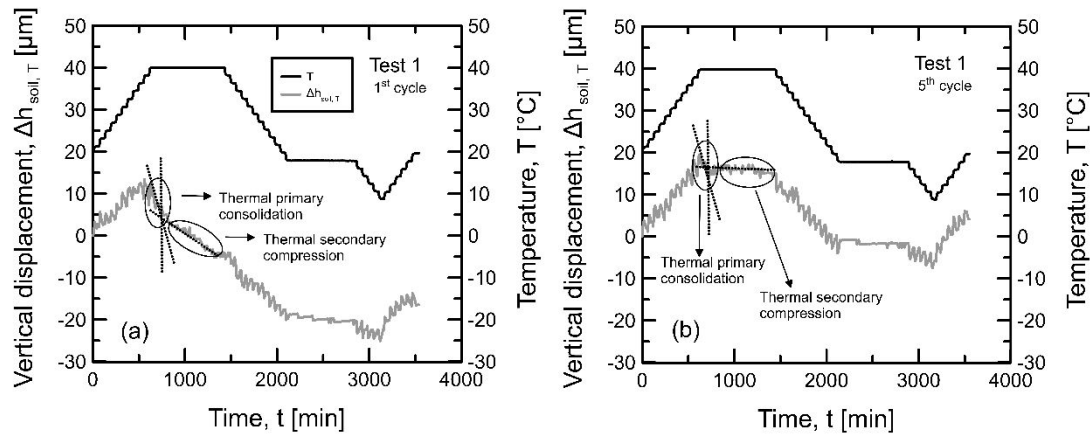


Figure 5. Interpretation procedure for thermal load and temperature evolution measured over time for normally consolidated clayey samples (Test 1). Analysis of the relative role of primary consolidation and secondary compression in the volumetric response of fine-grained soils. Positive displacements represent expansion and negative displacements represent contraction

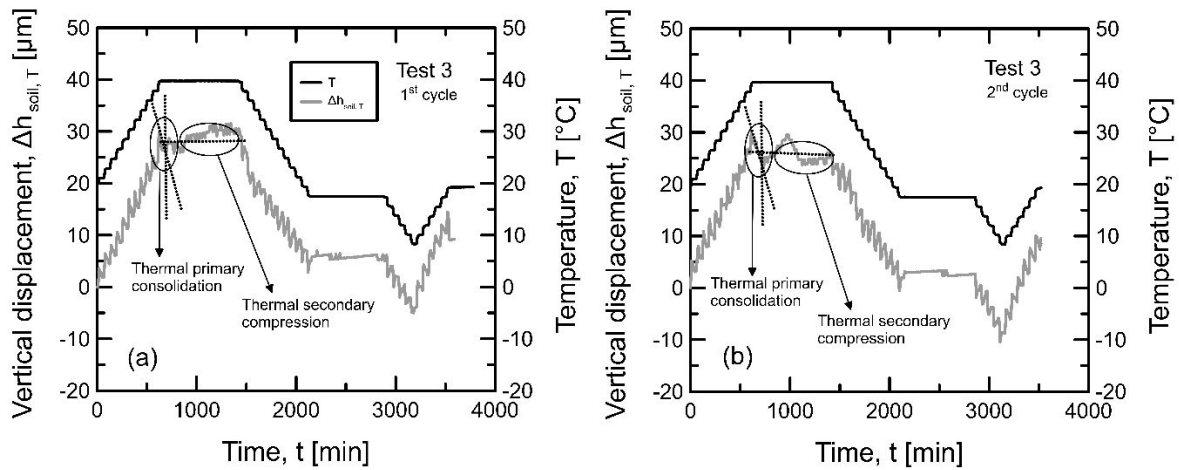


Figure 6. Interpretation procedure for thermal load and temperature evolution measured over time for overconsolidated clayey samples (Test 3). Analysis of the relative role of primary consolidation and secondary compression in the volumetric response of fine-grained soils. Positive displacements represent expansion and negative displacements represent contraction

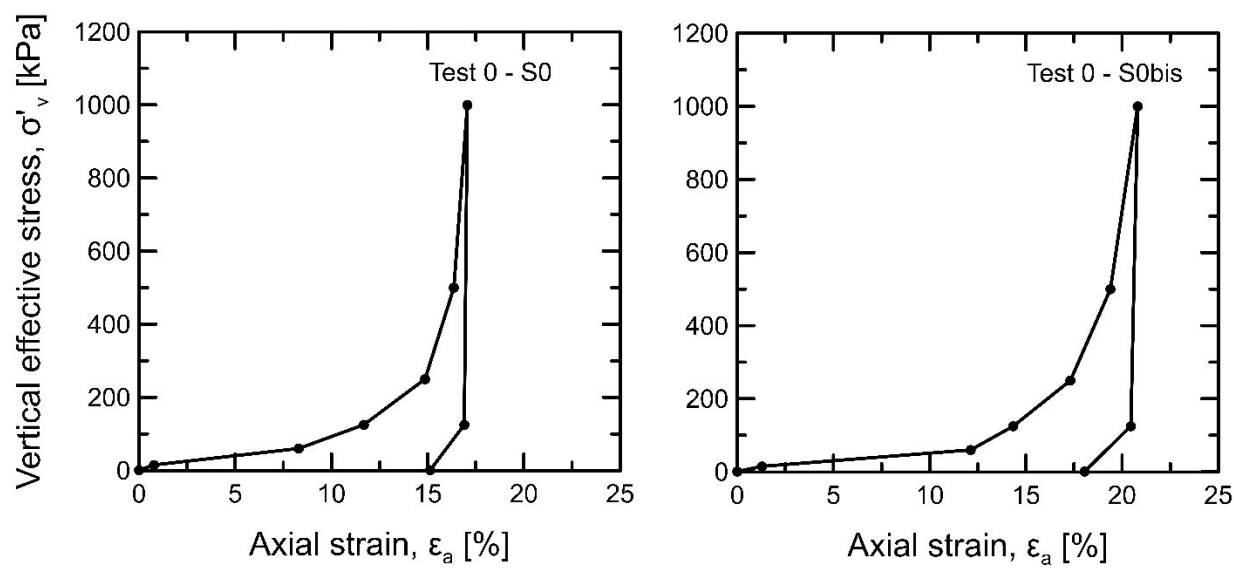


Figure 7. Standard oedometer tests results of clayey samples in terms of axial strain

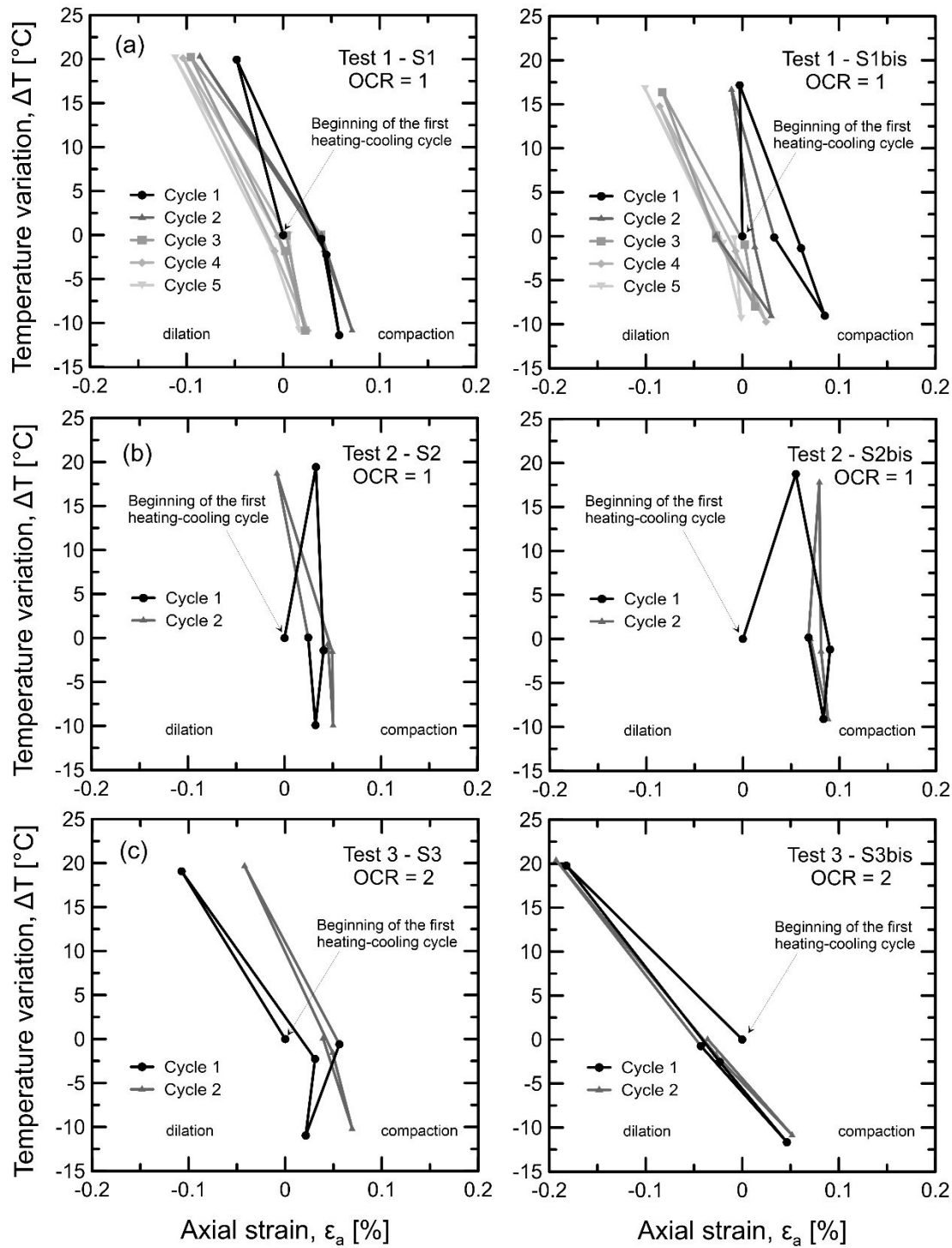


Figure 8. Volumetric behaviour of fine-grained soils subjected to thermal cycles. Heating and cooling of (a) normally consolidated clayey samples at a constant vertical effective stress of 125 kPa; (b) normally consolidated clayey samples at a constant vertical effective stress of 1000 kPa, and (c) overconsolidated clayey samples at a constant vertical stress of 125 kPa

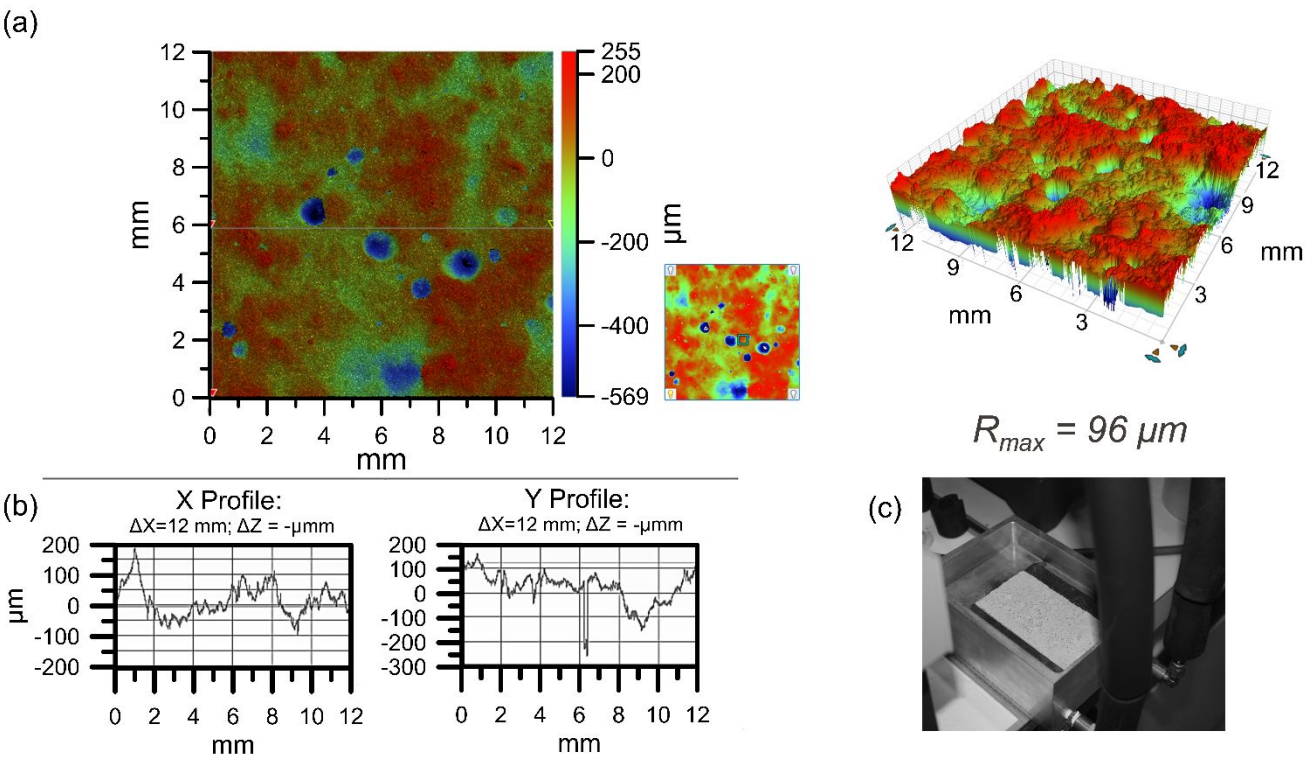


Figure 9. Determination of concrete roughness by optical microscope: (a) image of the concrete surface acquired by a Bruker 3D optical microscope, (b) examples of roughness profiles for two specific sections, and (c) photograph of the concrete surface

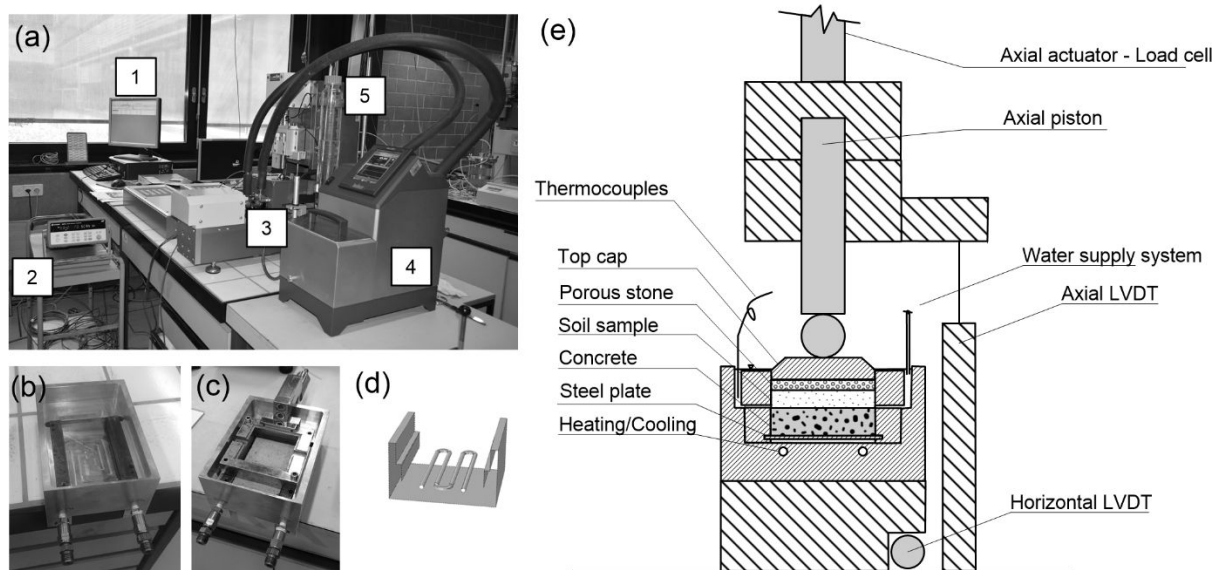


Figure 10. Modified direct shear device: (a) global view of the system (1: software control, 2: datalogger thermocouples, 3: insulation, 4: thermal bath, and 5: water supply system). (b) and (c) details of the modified shear box. (d) and (e) schematic representation of the shear box

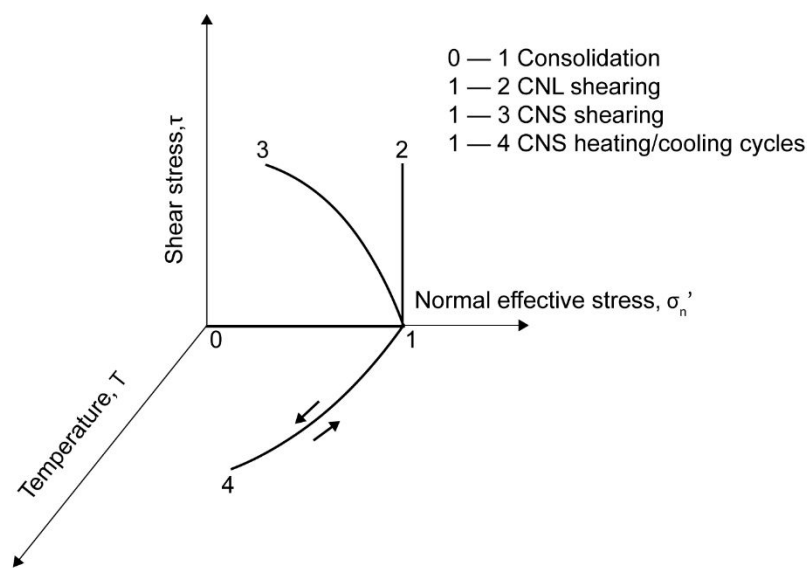


Figure 11. Stress-temperature paths followed during direct shear tests. Tests 4 and 6: path 0-1-2; Tests 5, 7, and 9: path 0-1-3; Tests 8 and 10: path 0-1-4-3

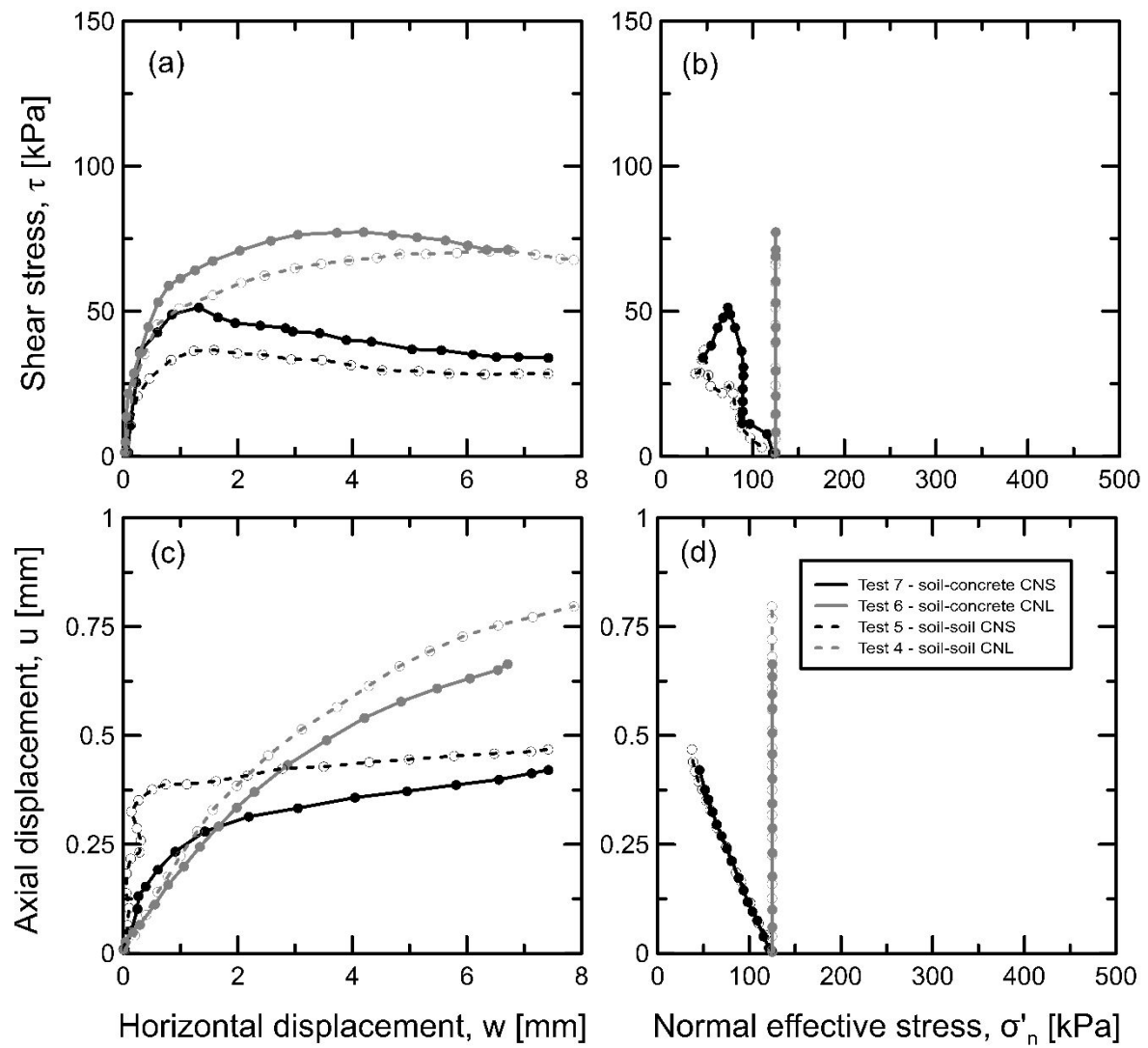


Figure 12. Clay-clay and clay-concrete interface tests under isothermal conditions. (a) stress-strain behaviour; (b) Mohr plane: load paths and failure behaviour; (c) dilatancy effects, and (d) volumetric behaviour

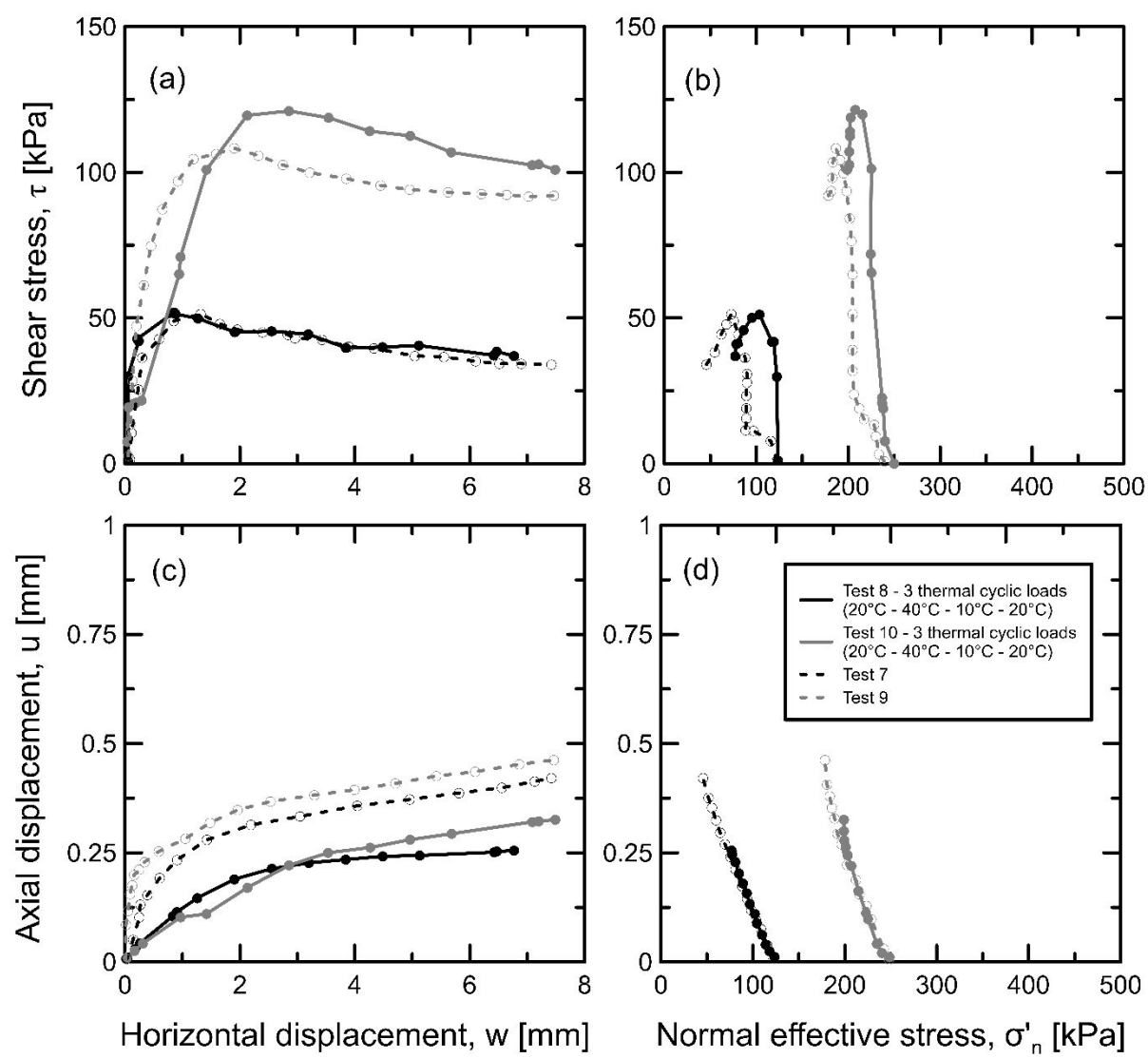


Figure 13. Clay-concrete interface tests under CNS conditions: (solid) being subjected to thermal cycles, (dash) not subjected to thermal cycles. (a) stress-strain behaviour; (b) Mohr plane: load paths and failure behaviour; (c) dilatancy effects, and (d) volumetric behaviour

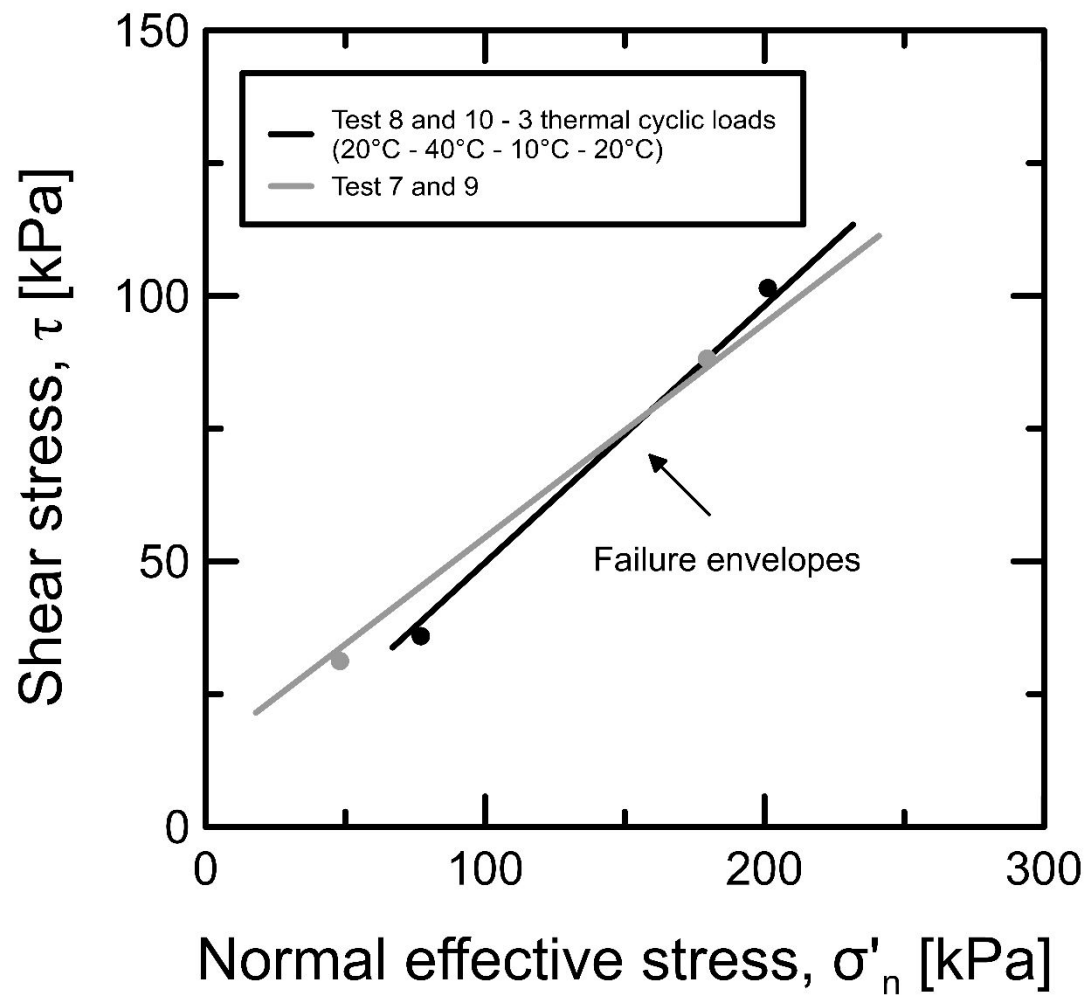


Figure 14. Clay-concrete interface failure envelopes for testing under CNS conditions: (black) being subjected to thermal cycles, (grey) not subjected to thermal cycles

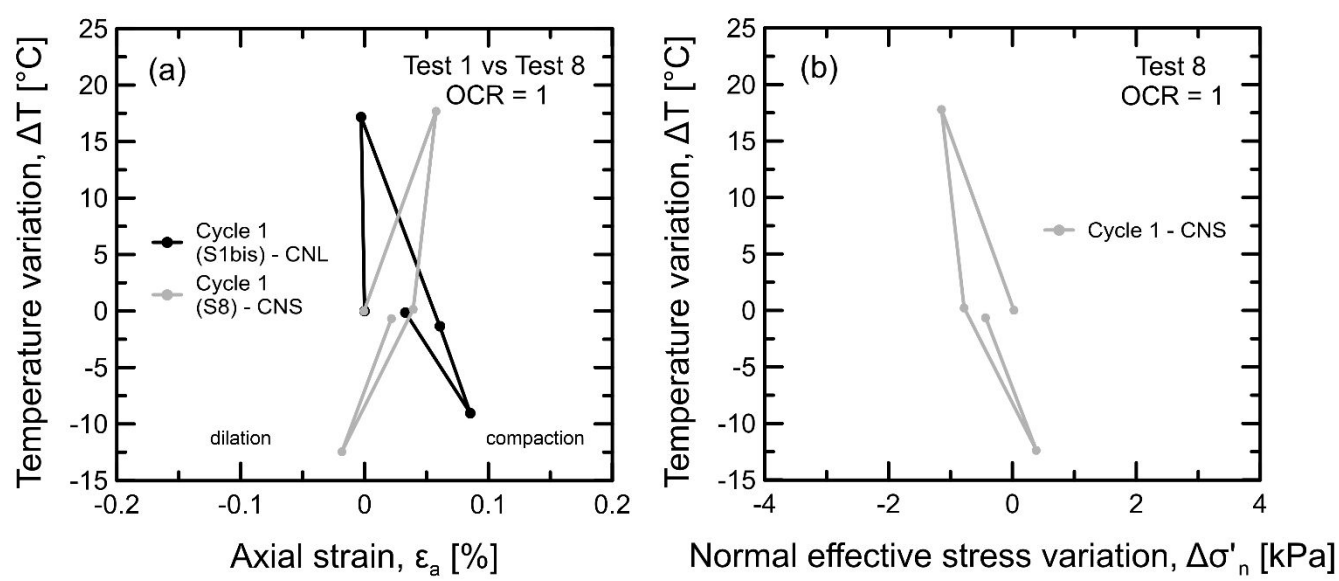


Figure 15. (a) Comparison between measured axial strain under CNL and CNS conditions during a heating-cooling cycle. (b) Measured normal effective stress variation during a heating-cooling thermal cycle